



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR AMERICAN STUDENTS OF HISTORY AT PARIS ¹

THE topic assigned me this evening is not entirely a new one. Two former presidents of this association have had occasion to discuss briefly the progress of historical studies in France,² and, thanks to our secretary, Americans have long been familiar with the excellent report upon historical work at Paris prepared by Professor Fredericq of the University of Ghent and translated in the *Johns Hopkins University Studies*.³ Quite recently, too, the newspapers have had something to say concerning the educational opportunities of the French capital, and there are at least three committees—a *Comité Franco-Américain*, a Paris-American University Committee, and an American Advisory Committee—charged with disseminating information and strengthening academic relations between France and America. My excuse for venturing into the field is that important changes have taken place in the fifteen years since Fredericq's account appeared, and that, in spite of newspapers and committees, there is not accessible, so far as I know, a statement of what is actually done in France in the various lines of work to which the attention of American students is being directed. In attempting to show what Paris offers and what it does not offer in the department of history I shall try to be as succinct and definite as possible; it will, I trust, be evident that I hold no brief for French schools and make no plea for Paris as the unique goal of the historical student.

In limiting the subject to Paris I am well aware that Paris is not France and that instruction in history is not confined to the metropolis. Much has been done of late to improve the condition of the provincial universities, so that Professor Bréal, an active leader in the movement to increase the attendance of students from this side

¹ Read before the American Historical Association at its meeting at Cleveland, December 29, 1897.

² Andrew D. White, *European Schools of History and Politics*, in the *Johns Hopkins University Studies*, December, 1887. Charles Kendall Adams, *Recent Historical Work in the Colleges and Universities of Europe and America*, *Papers of the American Historical Association*, IV. 39-65.

³ *The Study of History in Germany and France*, *Johns Hopkins University Studies*, May-June, 1890. Work in history at Paris is also described, largely on the basis of his own observations in 1890, by Altamira in the second edition of his *Enseñanza de la Historia*, 35-90. The recent impressions of a Belgian student, E. Lameere, will be found in the *Revue de l'Université de Bruxelles* for 1896, Nos. 7-10.

of the Atlantic, has expressed the hope that many Americans might be drawn to them by the desire "to know French life intimately and in its purity," to revel in the rare climate of Bordeaux or Montpellier, or to enjoy the beauties of Grenoble "within sight of the Alps, beside the swift waters of the Isère."¹ Now Grenoble is a delightful place in summer, as I can testify, and the winter climate of Paris may easily be surpassed in the south, but these things of themselves are not sufficient to attract the serious student. The provincial universities suffer from the evils common to the whole educational system of France, plus the depressing influence of excessive centralization, and they have none of the advantages of special schools, great libraries, etc., which are found at the capital. There are excellent men in many of the provincial faculties, but it can safely be said that for the present, at least, the American who goes to France to study will turn his steps toward Paris.

The organization of higher instruction in France is in sharp contrast with our ordinary conceptions of the character of the French people. Instead of being simple and logical, higher education is complicated and unsystematic; instead of having been radically made over from time to time, it has evolved slowly, with large deference to conservative prejudice and vested interests. As a result, the system has grown by additions rather than by alterations, by the creation of new agencies rather than by the modification and enlargement of old ones, so that each successive period in the history of modern France has left one or more representatives in the congeries of existing institutions of learning. Thus the Collège de France is a survival of the old régime, the École Polytechnique is the creation of the Convention, the Faculties were organized by Napoleon, the École des Chartes was established under the Restoration, the École des Hautes Etudes owes its origin to the Second Empire.

If any one thing has been characteristic of French education amid all the vicissitudes of the past hundred years, it is the system of special schools, designed to prepare men for a single definite career, rather than the university with its varied opportunities and broad ideas of culture and research. Adopted by the Convention to meet the pressing needs created by the suppression of the old universities, the system of special schools was permanently established by the First Empire. Afterward, as new needs appeared, new schools were created, while at the same time the old schools sought to enlarge their facilities in the direction of general studies

¹ *Journal des Débats*, June 7, 1895, as quoted in the pamphlet issued in that year under the title *The Comité Franco-Américain of Paris*.

and thus become miniature universities. The professors of the faculties of letters and science, the only bodies not strictly professional in character, had no regular duties of instruction and spent their time in examining candidates for certain degrees and in delivering lectures before a miscellaneous audience who came for an hour's pleasant entertainment or perhaps to keep warm and read the newspapers. The Collège de France was in exactly the same position except that its professors held no examinations. The whole system wasted resources by the duplication of buildings, appliances, and teachers inevitable under a régime of isolated professional schools; overburdened faculties and students with an artificial system of examinations; encouraged superficiality and rhetorical display among the professors; and deprived students both of a thorough scientific training and of contact with practical affairs.¹

The movement for the reform of higher education began toward the close of the Second Empire, largely through the influence of men who had studied in Germany and had been impressed with the superior advantages of their neighbors beyond the Rhine, and it was powerfully furthered by the events of 1870 and 1871. Changes have come slowly among a people which finds it easier to plan large reforms than to execute small ones, and the system is still in process of transformation, but in certain directions great advances have been made. The special schools have not been suppressed, but they no longer monopolize the field. The faculties of letters and science are now teaching and investigating as well as lecturing bodies, and have added to their previous duties the work of preparing teachers, once exclusively performed by the *Ecole Normale*. The expenditures for higher education have greatly increased, and the various groups of faculties have taken the name and caught something of the spirit of universities. Some improvement has been made in the programmes of examinations, while by the establishment of the *École des Hautes Études* opportunity has been given for thorough training in investigation in all the principal branches of knowledge.

The progress accomplished in France within a generation is nowhere more apparent than in the subject of history. Thirty years ago the opportunities for historical instruction at Paris were limited to the displays of oratory at the Sorbonne and Collège de France, the closed courses of the *École Normale*—as yet untouched by the hand of Fustel de Coulanges—and the special training of the *École des Chartes*, of which more will be said later. To-day, apart

¹ Condensed from the excellent article of Langlois on *The Question of Universities in France*, in the *Political Science Quarterly*, September, 1894.

from the École Normale, which is not open to the public, and certain courses at the Law School and Collège de France which lie rather in the field of economics and political science than in that of history proper, the student of history may avail himself, not only of the École des Chartes and of the enlarged and invigorated Faculty of Letters, but of the new École des Hautes Études and École Libre des Sciences Politiques—all with the exception of the École Libre open without charge¹ to foreigners as well as natives and to women as well as men. In these four institutions alone there are this year, leaving out of account the related work in language and archaeology, twenty-eight different professors of history, offering fifty-five distinct courses—a number of instructors and courses equal to those of Berlin and Leipzig combined. In all this variety there is very little duplication of work, in spite of the independence of each school. Indeed, as has recently been remarked, the Faculty of Letters, the Ecole des Hautes Études, and the École des Chartes, all now installed in the new buildings of the Sorbonne, are but the distinct departments of the historical faculty of an ideal University of Paris, vaster even than the university actually authorized by the recent law.² Let us see what each of these institutions has to offer.

The Faculty of Letters of the University of Paris is in theory an institution for the encouragement and diffusion of higher culture, a centre of research and training in historical and philological investigation, and a normal school for the preparation of teachers for *lycées* and colleges.³ In actual practice its energies are chiefly absorbed in the task of preparing candidates for the examinations leading to the *licence* and *agrégation*, and by far the greater number of its students are working for these degrees. Two sorts of courses are offered: the public lecture, open to everybody as of old but primarily addressed to students, who form a constantly growing element in the audience; and the closed course (*cours fermé, conférence*), to which only matriculates are admitted. The nature of the closed courses depends largely upon the tastes of the instructor. Sometimes they consist of a series of set lectures on a topic previously announced, sometimes they are transformed into seminars for the detailed study of an author or an epoch; but more commonly they take the form of explanations of the authors and texts which are found on the examination programmes of the year, or of practical exercises in teaching conducted by the pupils in turn under the criticism of the instructor and the rest of the class.

¹ The Faculty of Letters demands certain inconsiderable fees from candidates for degrees.

² Langlois and Seignobos, *Introduction aux Études Historiques*, 306.

³ *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, November 15, 1897, p. 417.

Of the forty-eight professors and instructors who announce courses in the Faculty of Letters this year,¹ eleven devote themselves entirely to historical subjects. Ancient history is represented by Bouché-Leclercq, the well-known writer upon Roman religion and institutions, Guiraud, the talented pupil and biographer of Fustel de Coulanges, and Grébaut, who confines his attention to Oriental history. The chair of medieval history is held by Luchaire, the distinguished master of the Capetian epoch. For the modern period there are four professors: Lavissee, the director of the department of history and geography, who lectures on the age of Louis XIV. and conducts a series of admirable exercises for future teachers, Aulard, who occupies the chair of the history of the French Revolution established by the city of Paris, Zeller, and Rambaud, at present Minister of Public Instruction and replaced at the Sorbonne by Denis of the University of Bordeaux. The list also includes Seignobos, who considers questions of historical method and their application to secondary instruction, Langlois, who lectures on bibliography and palaeography and conducts a seminary for research in the Middle Ages, and Lemonnier, who treats of the history of art in its relations to the history of civilization. The student's choice will naturally be governed by his tastes and opportunities, but whatever his special interests, he should at least endeavor to profit by the varied and accurate information and rigorous scientific methods of Langlois, the originality and suggestiveness of Seignobos, and the brilliant lectures of Lavissee, unsurpassed models in their combination of matter and form.

Of the degrees conferred by the Faculty of Letters, two only, the doctorate in letters and the diploma in history and geography, are of interest to the foreign student. The French doctorate is a distinctive institution, the peculiarities of which are not generally understood abroad, where from the similarity of name it is usually supposed to represent the equivalent of the German and American doctorates, from which it differs in several important respects. In order to become a candidate for the doctorate in France it is necessary, not only to possess the degree of bachelor, which corresponds roughly to the certificate of graduation from a German gymnasium; one must also be *licencié* in letters, that is, one must have spent on the average at least two years in further study at a university and passed examinations in Greek, Latin, French and certain elective

¹ The various courses given at Paris each year are enumerated in the *Livret de l'Étudiant de Paris*, a small pamphlet issued in November under the auspices of the University Council. Unfortunately it has not yet become the practice to make announcements much in advance of the time of opening in November, but there is not much change from year to year in the work offered. According to a recent announcement in the *Nation* M. Henry Bréal, 70 Rue d'Assas, will be glad to give information to intending students.

subjects. Once *licencié*, the candidate has no further requirements of time or residence to fulfil for the doctorate, nor are there any examinations beyond the public defence of the thesis, an ordeal of at least four hours and by no means so simple an affair as the Prussian *Disputation*. Everything centres in the theses, which are two in number, one in Latin, corresponding in length and general character to the ordinary German dissertation, the other in French, averaging from three hundred to six hundred pages in length and dealing in a thorough and comprehensive manner with an important subject. In theory a student may present himself at once upon receiving the *licence*, in practice, owing to the nature of the thesis, several years intervene, so that many Frenchmen are well along in the thirties before they become doctors. From one point of view, the French doctorate is less exacting than the German or our own, since there are no requirements of subordinate subjects and tests of the candidate's general knowledge of the field in which he presents himself, these matters being presumably covered by the *licence* and the training necessary to produce a satisfactory thesis; but on the other hand, the standard of the thesis is in France much higher. It is not an *Erstlingsarbeit*, not simply a proof of ability to carry on investigation, but a solid and mature production, designed as an original contribution to knowledge worthy, if possible, of the praise summed up in the reviewer's term *définitif*. To see that there is no comparison between the French and the German dissertations, one has only to examine a number of the history theses in French—those in Latin are well understood to stand on a different footing—such as the recent works of Petit-Dutaillis on Louis VIII. and of Funck-Brentano on Philip the Fair and Flanders. The earlier American theses preserved the German idea, but there are some recent indications of a trend in the French direction; certainly volumes like Coffin's *Quebec Act*, Hazen's *American Opinion of the French Revolution*, and several of the *Columbia Studies* and *Harvard Monographs*, are not of the traditional type.

Until the present year the French doctorate was practically closed to foreigners, since the government steadfastly refused to accept equivalents for the *licence*, which does not correspond exactly to any degree elsewhere, and no student ready to carry on advanced work cared to devote his time to preparing for the rhetorical compositions necessary for this degree. Recently, as a result of the praiseworthy efforts to remove obstacles which repelled foreign students, without impairing the value of the doctorate for French citizens, the newly constituted universities have been empowered to create and confer degrees which shall attest the scientific attainments of the recipients

but cannot carry with them any of the legal privileges of existing degrees. In the exercise of its new authority the Faculty of Letters of Paris voted in January, 1897, to establish the *doctorate de l'Université de Paris*, open to native and foreign students. The new doctorate demands of the French candidate the *licence* and of foreigners a certificate of previous training satisfactory to the Faculty; the period of study must extend over at least four semesters, two of which may be spent at another university; and the final tests consist of a thesis and examinations in two subjects.¹

The *diplôme d'études supérieures* is an innovation of the year 1894 which is at present limited to the subjects of history and geography. Preparation for this degree involves the presentation and public discussion of a thesis—the more meritorious of these are hereafter to be published by the Faculty,—the treatment of an historical and a geographical problem assigned in advance of the examination, the critical commentary of a text, and examinations in geography or one of the sciences auxiliary to history. This diploma is a stage in the *agrégation d'histoire et de géographie*, the competitive examination for professorships of history and geography in the *lycées*, but it may also be sought independently by any one, without restriction of age, race, or academic degree. The thesis is supposed to show the candidate's power of investigation in much the same way as the German dissertation, and it is the hope of those interested in the new diploma that it will represent about the same degree of attainment as the German doctorate.² Whether this will prove true depends entirely upon those who have the conferring of the degrees in their hands, particularly since a sufficient preliminary training, guaranteed in the case of candidates for the *agrégation* by the necessity of having first received the *licence*, is not secured by any formal requirement in the case of other applicants. Should a high standard be maintained, the *diplôme d'études supérieures* will certainly prove attractive to foreign students, not because it is easier to obtain than the doctorate, but because it corresponds more nearly to the needs of the student at this stage in his development.

The École Pratique des Hautes Études is the child of Victor Duruy. Finding it impossible to bring the Faculties to accept his ideas of university reform, Duruy determined to found a new

¹ See the report of the committee of the Faculty in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, March 15, 1897; and compare the report of Lavisso to the Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique in the same journal, October 15, 1897.

² See the opening addresses of Lavisso and Langlois in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement*, November 15, 1895, and November 15, 1897. There is an interesting set of reports on the *diplôme d'études supérieures* in the various universities in the same journal for September 15, 1897.

school, whose prime object should be to teach its pupils how to study and investigate for themselves, and whose influence, he hoped, would in time destroy the old system of education. As established in 1868, the *École Pratique* consisted of four sections (now five), one of which comprised history and philology. The work of the school is open to all, "without condition of age, degree or nationality," who are willing to take active part in its exercises and can satisfy the instructor of their ability to do so. Beyond this there are no restrictions on the number and choice of courses and no fixed term of study. Those who have been in attendance three years and present a satisfactory thesis receive a diploma. Until it entered its quarters in the new Sorbonne last fall, the section of history and philology had its home in the upper rooms of the old university library, where the students were placed in the midst of the books and enjoyed opportunities of freer intercourse with their professors than is usual in France, so that some have questioned whether the spirit of the school will not lose something by abandoning its outgrown library garrets.

From the very beginning of the *École Pratique* the most active spirit in the development of its historical department has been Gabriel Monod, the accomplished editor of the *Revue Historique* and at present director of the section of history and philology. Associated with him are six well-known scholars: Thévenin, Roy, Giry, Longnon, Bémont and Reuss. Each instructor gives two courses, which are of an advanced and special character and are generally conducted on a plan similar to that of the German seminary. The subjects vary somewhat from year to year but within relatively narrow limits. Recently Monod has concentrated the attention of his students on the Carolingian period, with special reference to its legislative monuments, while Thévenin considers subjects of early Germanic law. Giry's conferences, admirable examples of historical method, are confined to the history of the ninth and tenth centuries, one exercise being at present devoted to the critical study of an annalist and the other to studies on the diplomatic sources of the period with reference to his forthcoming edition of the charters of the later Carolingians. Bémont treats by preference topics in the medieval history of England, a field in which he is an acknowledged master; frequently he gives one hour to lectures on the sources of English history and the other to the detailed study of some special topic. Longnon's work lies in the field of French historical geography, which he has made so peculiarly his own; Roy deals with the history of the later Middle Ages; Reuss has recently been added to the corps of teachers in order to give instruction in the history of modern Europe¹. Stu-

dents of history may also attend with profit some of the related courses in the history of religions, which now form the fifth section of the school.

The École des Chartes, first established in 1821, is a special school for the training of archivists and librarians for the public service. The number of regular pupils admitted each year is limited to twenty, selected by competitive examination from candidates who have taken the bachelor's degree and have not passed the age of twenty-five; but the exercises of the school are freely open to the public, and there is always a good attendance of hearers at certain courses. The programme of studies covers three years and includes palaeography, diplomatics, archaeology, Romance philology, the history of French law and institutions, the sources of French history, bibliography and the organization of libraries and archives. Besides passing the regular examinations in these subjects, candidates for the diploma of *archiviste paléographe* are required to prepare a thesis based upon prolonged research and involving the use of manuscript materials. The conclusions to which the investigation has led are presented in printed form, and the whole thesis subjected to rigorous public examination by a committee of professors. Although the work of the school embraces the whole period down to 1789, particular emphasis is laid on the Middle Ages. The courses are not designed to give a systematic survey of the field of history or to study special periods in detail; the aim is rather to afford a comprehensive and thorough training in the subjects auxiliary to history, with special reference to the needs of future custodians of historical materials. In many respects unique, the work of the school has been of great importance in the development of sound historical scholarship in France, and it is held in high regard in other parts of Europe, where its example has been followed in the creation of institutions like the Scuola di Paleografia at Florence and the Institut für österreichische Geschichtsforschung at Vienna and in the recent movement for the establishment of a similar school in England.

From the nature of its work the École des Chartes appeals to but a limited constituency, but no serious student of French history or of the Middle Ages in general can afford to neglect it, particularly since the recent removal from the ill-lighted and inconvenient quarters at the Archives Nationales to the new building adjoining the Sorbonne has made it easily accessible to all. The much loved Gautier is gone, and with him the famous potpourri of palaeography

¹ The section publishes a series of monographs, the *Bibliothèque de l'École des Hautes Études*, and an *Annuaire*, containing, besides the general regulations, reports on the work of the previous year and announcements of current courses.

and medieval lore which he served with such good humor, but one may still learn to read old manuscripts from his successor, E. Berger, while masters like Giry, Paul Meyer, A. Molinier and de Lasteyrie challenge comparison with the best in Europe.¹

The *École Libre des Sciences Politiques* is a private institution, occupying quarters in the Rue St. Guillaume, about fifteen minutes' walk from the Sorbonne. It was established in 1871 primarily for the purpose of fitting young men for the civil service, and while it also gives opportunity for a good general training in political science, its organization and character are determined by the examinations of the various government departments for which it prepares. The plan of study covers two years and is divided into four sections: administration, economics and finance, diplomacy, and history and public law. The courses are of two types, the set lecture and the informal conference, which is usually devoted to the consideration of topics parallel to those treated in the lectures; the students also meet for reviews under quiz-masters, and the more advanced in each department are formed into groups for the purposes of investigation. As no previous knowledge of economics or political science is required for admission, the courses are of an elementary and descriptive character. History does not occupy a large place in the programme, the only historical matters treated being the constitutional development of France and certain other countries in the nineteenth century, the diplomatic history of Europe since the Treaty of Utrecht, and recent political history. The American student would probably be most attracted by the courses of A. Leroy-Beaulieu on current politics, Vandal on the Eastern question, and Bourgeois on the diplomacy of the eighteenth century, and by Sorel's excellent account of diplomatic history since 1789. Boutmy, the director, whose studies in comparative constitutional law have been so favorably received in America, does not lecture.²

If we combine the forces of the four institutions to which we have limited ourselves, it appears that there are at Paris three lecturers on ancient history, ten on medieval, twelve on modern, and three on subjects which do not belong to any single period. The relatively small amount of attention given to ancient history is at once evident. Bouché-Leclercq and Guiraud do good work, and

¹ The *Livret de l'École des Chartes*, published in 1891, contains a brief history of the school, accompanied by official documents, and a list of its graduates with the subjects of their theses. Current news appears in the *Bibliothèque de l'École des Chartes*. The *Everyday Work of the École des Chartes* is described by W. E. Mead in the *Academy* (Boston), December, 1890.

² The school publishes each year a pamphlet giving the *Organisation et Programme des Cours*, sold at one franc. Current information also appears in the *Annales de l'École Libre des Sciences Politiques*.

are re-enforced by classical scholars of the type of Havet, Cagnat and Boissier, as well as by eminent Orientalists, but it is obvious that one whose special interests lie in the field of Greek and Roman history—if any such should some day come to light in America!—will seek instruction elsewhere than in Paris. Modern history, the field which on the whole ought to offer the greatest attraction to the American student, is well represented and counts among its professors probably the most brilliant historical lecturers at Paris; there is, however, for this period a marked absence of seminaries or “practical” courses. For the Middle Ages there is no lack of opportunity, whether in lecture, seminary, or the auxiliary sciences so necessary to the medievalist, and it is probably in this field that French historical scholarship has won its greatest triumphs and offers its largest facilities. In both the medieval and modern periods the work is rather closely limited to the history of France, obviously a greater disadvantage to the native than to the foreign student, who has little opportunity to study French history elsewhere.

The proportion of set lecture courses is smaller in France than in Germany, as the French system compels university professors to spend the greater part of their time in preparing men for the *licence* and *agrégation* and examining candidates for the bachelor's degree, so that at the Sorbonne a professor will frequently give but one lecture a week. The lectures are, however, prepared with great care, both as regards matter and form; the old type of public address in which the professor “said nothing but said it nicely” has, in history at least, quite passed away, and nothing is more characteristic of the younger generation of historical scholars in France than their horror of declamation or rhetorical padding of any sort. Indeed, their directness and simplicity and rigid exclusion of irrelevant matter compensate in some degree for the infrequency of their appearance, so that it is no rare thing for a professor to accomplish as much in one exercise of an hour or an hour and a half as most Germans succeed in doing in three or four of their shorter periods.

There is always a certain attraction in comparing the characteristics of two peoples like the French and the German, but such comparisons are apt to be superficial and misleading, especially in the world of scholarship, where national distinctions are fast tending to disappear. With all that they have gained in thoroughness and accuracy—matters for which they are largely but by no means wholly indebted to German models—French students of history have not lost their power of effective organization and presentation of material. No one could maintain that in France, where they have only in recent years been placed upon a substantial basis, historical

studies are so well organized or have produced so much good work as in Germany, but the quality will not suffer by comparison; and in the midst of the vast mass of historical publications of every sort the French have been able to preserve a juster sense of proportion in their work, as well as a certain originality and freshness of view born of contact with fields of investigation in which much still remains to be discovered. It should also be observed that the Romantic movement spent its force much more quickly in France than in Germany or England; except among the adherents of the old régime, the French manifest a sharper detachment from the past and a more objective attitude toward it than either of the other peoples mentioned. This is the result, partly of the Revolution, partly of the national lack of sentiment; while it limits the power of sympathetic interpretation, it checks the tendency to idealize the good old days and to obscure the vital distinctions between different periods; it places less emphasis upon survivals and reversionisms and more upon the reality of historic change. Another characteristic of historical work in France—the clerical party being of course excepted—is its marked secular character and its impatience of anything that savors of mysticism or metaphysics.

In the correlation of history with other subjects, the French universities are at a disadvantage as compared with those of America or Germany. The combination of history with geography in the *lycées* compels an artificial union of these subjects in the universities, which, while perhaps serving to call attention to an adjunct of history too often neglected, separates geography from geology and cognate studies and divorces history from its natural associates, economics and political science. Indeed, since very little instruction in social and political science is given in the *lycées* for which they prepare teachers, no regular provision is made for these subjects in the faculties of letters, and the student who desires to broaden his work in these directions must have recourse to the Law School, the Collège de France, and such private institutions as the École Libre des Sciences Politiques and the Collège Libre des Sciences Sociales—the last an interesting attempt to supplement the work of other schools by short courses in economic method and doctrine. The dangers of such a division of the social sciences, in weakening the hold of history upon the present and encouraging a purely doctrinaire treatment of economics, it is not necessary to point out.

No enumeration of the historical resources of Paris would be complete that did not include some mention of the Bibliothèque Nationale, the largest collection of printed books in the world, and the treasures of unpublished materials for history preserved here

and at the Archives Nationales, as well as at various lesser depositories, and constituting a richer body of manuscript sources than is possessed by any rival university centre. It should however be observed that in the matter of access to books the German student has, on the whole, the advantage over the French. It is not easy for an American to conquer his impatience at the vexatious delays of any Continental library, and I have certainly no desire to pose as the defender of the German system; but the majority of German libraries have at least the merit of being catalogued and of keeping their periodicals up to date and accessible, and the inconvenience of discovering that a book has been lent from a German library is certainly no greater than that of learning that the desired volume of the *Bibliothèque Nationale* is at the binder's or cannot be found. Worst of all, perhaps, is the fact that the seminary library, the unfailing resource of the German student and one of the greatest advantages of the seminary system, is entirely lacking to the general student at Paris. Only for the user of manuscripts are the facilities there better than in Germany.

On the whole it is the advanced student of history, and not the beginner, who will derive most advantage from a sojourn at Paris. The immature youth, who has not yet secured a good grasp of the essential facts of history, who has not received some substantial training in investigation, and who has not some clear ideas concerning the nature of historical study and the reasons why he is pursuing it—a man of this sort is ill prepared to work wisely amid the multiplicity of special courses and the manifold distractions of the French capital. Thanks to the rapid development of American universities in the past twenty years, it is no longer necessary to cross the Atlantic in order to begin one's historical apprenticeship, or even in some lines in order satisfactorily to complete it; and there can be no question that the proportion of those who pursue their entire graduate course abroad is steadily decreasing. Their place is being taken by a growing number of mature students—professors on leave, travelling fellows, newly-made doctors, and others—who desire to continue work already well begun here. During their residence abroad these men will no doubt increase their stock of historical information and learn valuable lessons in historical method, but their greatest profit will come from access to great collections of historical material, from the stimulus of contact with new teachers and new ideas, and from first-hand knowledge of the monuments of the European past and the life of the European present. To such students Paris offers a warm welcome and a wide opportunity.

CHARLES H. HASKINS.